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4 Tests of Hypotheses and Confidence Intervals

4.1 Test of Hypotheses

Consider the linear model with

$$E(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{X}\beta \text{ and } Var(\mathbf{Y}) = \Sigma$$

This can also be expressed as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon$$

where $E(\epsilon) = \mathbf{0}$ and $Var(\epsilon) = \Sigma$.

Typical null hypothesis (H_0)

- is a status quo or prevailing viewpoint about a population
- specifies the values for one or more elements of β
- specifies the values for some linear functions of the elements of β

An alternative hypothesis (H_1)

- is an alternative to the null hypothesis – the change in the population that the researcher hopes is true

We may test

$$H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d} \quad \text{vs} \quad H_1 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} \neq \mathbf{d}$$

where

- \mathbf{C} is an $m \times k$ matrix of constants
- \mathbf{d} is an $m \times 1$ vector of constants

The null hypothesis is rejected if it is shown to be sufficiently incompatible with the observed data.

Failing to reject H_0 is **not** the same as proving H_0 is true.

- too little data to accurately estimate $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}$
- relatively large variation in $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ (or \mathbf{Y})
- if $H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d}$ is false, $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{d}$ may be “small”

You can never be completely sure that you made the correct decision

- Type I error (significance level):
 $P(H_0 \text{ is rejected} | H_0 \text{ is true})$
- Type II error:
 $P(H_0 \text{ is rejected} | H_0 \text{ is true})$

Basic considerations in specifying a null hypothesis $H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d}$

- $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ should be estimable.
- Inconsistencies should be avoided, i.e., $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d}$ should be a consistent set of equations
- Redundancies should be eliminated, i.e., in $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d}$ we should have

$$\text{rank}(\mathbf{C}) = \text{number-of-rows-in-}\mathbf{C}$$

4.2 Hypothesis Tests for Estimable Function

Consider the following effects models:

$$Y_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + \epsilon_{ij} \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$
$$j = 1, \dots, n_i$$

In this case

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y_{11} \\ Y_{12} \\ Y_{21} \\ Y_{31} \\ Y_{32} \\ Y_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{11} \\ \epsilon_{12} \\ \epsilon_{21} \\ \epsilon_{31} \\ \epsilon_{32} \\ \epsilon_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

4.2.1 The Mean Response For Any Treatments

By definition

$$E(Y_{i\cdot}) = \mu + \alpha_i \text{ is estimable.}$$

We can test

$$H_0 : \mu + \alpha_1 = 60 \text{ seconds}$$

against

$$H_1 : \mu + \alpha_1 \neq 60 \text{ seconds}$$

(two-sided alternative)

Or we can test

$$H_0 : \mu + \alpha_1 = 60 \text{ seconds}$$

against

$$H_1 : \mu + \alpha_1 < 60 \text{ seconds}$$

(one-sided alternative)

In this case

$$\mu + \alpha_1 = \mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that this quantity is estimable, i. e.,

$$\mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} = \mu + \alpha_1 = E \left[\left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} 0 0 0 0 \right) \mathbf{Y} \right].$$

Then, any solution

$$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{Y}$$

to the generalized least squares estimating equations

$$\mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{Y}$$

yields the **same value** for $\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b}$ and it is the **unique blue** for $\mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$.

We will reject $H_0 : \mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} = 60$ if

$$\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{Y}$$

is too far away from 60.

If $\text{Var}(\mathbf{Y}) = \sigma^2 I$, then any solution

$$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

to the least squares estimating equations

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

yields the **same value** for $\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b}$, and $\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b}$ is the **unique blue** for $\mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$.

We will reject $H_0 : \mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} = 60$ if

$$\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

is too far away from 60.

4.2.2 Difference between the mean response for two treatments

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_1 - \alpha_3 &= (\mu + \alpha_1) - (\mu + \alpha_3) \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{-1}{3} & \frac{-1}{3} & \frac{-1}{3} \end{pmatrix} E(\mathbf{Y})\end{aligned}$$

and we can test

$$H_0 : \alpha_1 - \alpha_3 = 0 \quad \text{vs.} \quad H_1 : \alpha_1 - \alpha_3 \neq 0$$

If $\text{Var}(\mathbf{Y}) = \sigma^2 I$, the unique BLUE for

$$\alpha_1 - \alpha_3 = (0 \ 1 \ 0 \ -1)\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

is

$$\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} \text{ for any } \mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

Reject $H_0 : \alpha_1 - \alpha_3 = \mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} = 0$ if $\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b}$ is too far from 0.

4.2.3 Non Estimable Functions

It would not make much sense to attempt to test

$$H_0 : \alpha_1 = 3 \quad \text{vs.} \quad H_1 : \alpha_1 \neq 3$$

because $\alpha_1 = [0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0]\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$ is not estimable.

- Although $E(Y_{1j}) = \mu + \alpha_1$ neither μ nor α_1 has a clear interpretation.
- Different solutions to the normal equations produce different values for

$$\hat{\alpha}_1 = \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

- To make a statement about α_1 , an additional restriction must be imposed on the parameters in the model to give α_1 a precise meaning.

4.3 Consistencies and Redundancies

For $\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, consider testing

$$H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 60 \\ 70 \end{bmatrix} \text{ vs. } H_1 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} \neq \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 60 \\ 70 \end{bmatrix}$$

In this case $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is estimable, but there is an inconsistency. If the null hypothesis is true,

$$\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 - \alpha_3 \\ \mu + \alpha_1 \\ \mu + \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 60 \\ 70 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then $\mu + \alpha_1 = 60$ and $\mu + \alpha_3 = 70$ implies

$$\begin{aligned} (\alpha_1 - \alpha_3) &= (\mu + \alpha_1) - (\mu + \alpha_3) \\ &= 60 - 70 \\ &= \mathbf{-10} \end{aligned}$$

Such inconsistencies should be avoided.

$$\text{For } \mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

consider testing

$$H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} -10 \\ 60 \\ 70 \end{bmatrix} \text{ vs. } H_1 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} \neq \begin{bmatrix} -10 \\ 60 \\ 70 \end{bmatrix}$$

In this case $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is estimable and the equations specified by the null hypothesis are consistent.

There is a redundancy

$$[1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0] \boldsymbol{\beta} = \mu + \alpha_1 = 60$$

$$[1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1] \boldsymbol{\beta} = \mu + \alpha_3 = 70$$

imply that

$$\begin{aligned} [0 \ 1 \ 0 \ -1] \boldsymbol{\beta} &= \alpha_1 - \alpha_3 \\ &= (\mu + \alpha_1) - (\mu + \alpha_3) \\ &= 60 - 70 \\ &= -10 \end{aligned}$$

The rows of \mathbf{C} are not linearly independent, i.e., $\text{rank}(\mathbf{C}) < \text{number of rows in } \mathbf{C}$.

There are many equivalent ways to remove a redundancy:

$$H_0 : \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} 60 \\ 70 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$H_0 : \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} -10 \\ 60 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$H_0 : \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} -10 \\ 70 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$H_0 : \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} 50 \\ 130 \end{bmatrix}$$

are all equivalent.

In each case:

- The two rows of \mathbf{C} are linearly independent and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{rank}(\mathbf{C}) &= 2 \\ &= \text{number of rows in } \mathbf{C} \end{aligned}$$

- The two rows of \mathbf{C} are a basis for the same 2-dimensional subspace of R^4 .

This is the 2-dimensional space spanned by the rows of

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We will only consider null hypotheses of the form

$$H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d}$$

where $\text{rank}(\mathbf{C}) = \text{number of rows in } \mathbf{C}$. This leads to the following concept of a “testable” hypothesis.

4.4 Testable Hypothesis

Definition 1.

Consider a linear model

$$E(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

where

$$V(\mathbf{Y}) = \Sigma$$

and \mathbf{X} is an $n \times k$ matrix. For an $m \times k$ matrix of constants \mathbf{C} and an $m \times 1$ vector of constants \mathbf{d} , we will say that

$$H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d}$$

is **testable** if

- (i) $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is estimable
- (ii) $\text{rank}(\mathbf{C}) = m = \text{number of rows in } \mathbf{C}$

To test $H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d}$

- (i) Use the data to estimate $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}$.
- (ii) Reject $H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d}$ if the estimate of $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is to far away from \mathbf{d} .
 - How much of the deviation of the estimate of $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ from \mathbf{d} can be attributed to random errors?
 - Need a probability distribution for the estimate of $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}$
 - Need a probability distribution for a test statistic

4.5 Normal Theory Gauss-Markov Model

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 I)$$

A least squares estimator \mathbf{b} for $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ minimizes

$$(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})^T(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})$$

For any generalized inverse of $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$,

$$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^-\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{Y}$$

is a solution to the normal equations

$$(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{Y} \text{ .}$$

Result 1. Results for the Gauss-Markov model

For a testable null hypothesis

$$H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d}$$

the OLS estimator for $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}$,

$$\mathbf{Cb} = \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^-\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{Y} \text{ ,}$$

has the following properties:

- (i) Since $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is estimable, \mathbf{Cb} is invariant to the choice of $(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^-$.

(ii) Since $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is estimable, \mathbf{Cb} is the unique BLUE for $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}$.

(iii) $E(\mathbf{Cb} - \mathbf{d}) = \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{d}$

- (iv) $V(\mathbf{Cb} - \mathbf{d}) = V(\mathbf{Cb}) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{C}^T$
- (v) $\mathbf{Cb} - \mathbf{d} \sim N(\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{d}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{C}^T)$
- (vi) When $H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d}$ is true,

$$\mathbf{Cb} - \mathbf{d} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{C}^T)$$
- (vii) Define

$$SS_{H_0} = (\mathbf{Cb} - \mathbf{d})^T [\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{C}^T]^{-1} (\mathbf{Cb} - \mathbf{d})$$
then

$$\frac{1}{\sigma^2} SS_{H_0} \sim \chi_m^2(\lambda)$$
where $m = \text{rank}(\mathbf{C})$ and

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{d})^T [\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{C}^T]^{-1} (\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{d})$$
- (viii) $\frac{1}{\sigma^2} SS_{H_0} \sim \chi_m^2$ if and only if $H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d}$ is true.
- (ix) $E(SS_{residuals}) = (n - k)\sigma^2$ where
 $k = \text{rank}(\mathbf{X}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X})$ and
 $n - k = \text{rank}(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X})$ and it follows that

$$MS_{residuals} = \frac{SS_{residuals}}{n - k}$$

- is an unbiased estimator of σ^2 .
- (x) $\frac{1}{\sigma^2} SS_{residuals} \sim \chi_{n-k}^2$

(xi) SS_{H_0} and $SS_{residuals}$ are independently distributed.

(xii) $F = \frac{\left(\frac{SS_{H_0}}{m\sigma^2}\right)}{\left(\frac{SS_{residuals}}{(n-k)\sigma^2}\right)} = \frac{\frac{SS_{H_0}}{m}}{\frac{SS_{residuals}}{n-k}} = \frac{(n-k)SS_{H_0}}{mSS_{residuals}}$
 $\sim F_{m,n-k}(\lambda)$
 with noncentrality parameter
 $\lambda = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}(\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{d})^T[\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{C}^T]^{-1}(\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{d})$
 ≥ 0
 and $\lambda = 0$ if and only if $H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d}$ is true.

Example 1.

Consider the linear model $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ with

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_{11} \\ Y_{12} \\ Y_{21} \\ Y_{22} \\ Y_{23} \\ Y_{24} \\ Y_{31} \\ Y_{32} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I)$.

- (a) Determine which of the following hypotheses are testable.
- i. $H_0 : \alpha_1 = \alpha_2$

ii. $H_0 : \alpha_1 - 2\alpha_2 + 3\alpha_3 = 0$

iii. $H_0 : \alpha_3 = 0$

- iv. $H_0 : \mu = 0$
- v. $\alpha_1 = \alpha_3$ and $\alpha_1 - 2\alpha_2 + \alpha_3 = 0$

vi. $\alpha_1 = \alpha_3$ and $\alpha_2 = \alpha_3$ and $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 - 2\alpha_3 = 0$

(b) Suppose

$$H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

against the alternative $H_1 : \alpha_1 \neq \alpha_3$ or $\alpha_1 - 2\alpha_2 + \alpha_3 \neq 0$.

i. Show that H_0 is testable.

ii. Express the numerator and denominator of your F -statistic as two quadratic forms. Show that the quadratic form in the denominator of your F -statistic, has a central chi-square distribution. Report its degrees of freedom.

iii. Show that the quadratic form in the numerator of your F -statistic, has a non central chi-square distribution. Report it's degrees of freedom and non centrality parameter.

iv. Show that the numerator and denominator of your F -statistic are independently distributed.

v. Show that your F -statistic has a non-central F -distribution. Report its degrees of freedom and express the non-centrality parameter as a function of $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$.

vi. Show that your test statistic has a central F-distribution when the null hypothesis is true.

4.6 Elements of Hypothesis Test

We perform the test by rejecting

$$H_0 : \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{d}$$

if

$$F > F_{(m,n-k),\alpha}$$

where α is a specified significance level (Type I error level) for the test.

$$\alpha = Pr\{reject H_0 \mid H_0 \text{ is true}\}$$

4.6.1 Type I Error Level

$$\alpha = Pr\{F > F_{m,n-k,\alpha} \mid H_0 \text{ is true}\}$$

When H_0 is true,

$$F = \frac{MS_{H_0}}{MS_{residuals}} \sim F_{m,n-k}$$

This is the probability of incorrectly rejecting a null hypothesis that is true.

4.6.2 Type II Error Level

$$\beta = Pr\{\text{Type II error}\}$$

$$= Pr\{\text{fail to reject } H_0 \mid H_0 \text{ is false}\}$$

$$= Pr\{F < F_{m,n-k,\alpha} \mid H_0 \text{ is false}\}$$

When H_0 is false,

$$F = \frac{MS_{H_0}}{MS_{residuals}} \sim F_{(m,n-k)}(\lambda)$$

4.6.3 Power of a Test

$$\begin{aligned} power &= 1 - \beta \\ &= Pr\{F > F_{m,n-k,\alpha} \mid H_0 \text{ is false}\} \end{aligned}$$

↗

this determines the value
of the noncentrality
parameter.

For a fixed type I error level (significance level) α , the power of the test increases as the noncentrality parameter increases.

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}(\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{d})^T[\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{C}^T]^{-1}(\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{d})$$

Example 2.

Effects of three diets on blood coagulation times in rats.
Diet factor: Diet 1, Diet 2, Diet 3
Response: blood coagulation time
Model for a completely randomized experiment with n_i rats assigned to the i -th diet.

$$Y_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + \epsilon_{ij}$$

where

$$\epsilon_{ij} \sim NID(0, \sigma^2)$$

for $i = 1, 2, 3$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, n_i$.

Here, $E(Y_{ij}) = \mu + \alpha_i$ is the mean coagulation time for rats fed the i -th diet.

Test the null hypothesis that the mean blood coagulation time is the same for all three diets.

..

Example 3.

Suppose we are willing to specify:

- (i) α = type I error level = .05
- (ii) $n_1 = n_2 = n_3 = n$
- (iii) power $\geq .90$ to detect
- (iv) a specific alternative

$$(\mu + \alpha_1) - (\mu + \alpha_3) = 0.5\sigma$$

$$(\mu + \alpha_2) - (\mu + \alpha_3) = \sigma$$

How many observations (in this case rats) are needed?

Example 4.

For the hypotheses testing

$$H_0 : (\mu + \alpha_1) = (\mu + \alpha_2) = \cdots = (\mu + \alpha_k)$$

against

$$H_1 : (\mu + \alpha_1) \neq (\mu + \alpha_j) \text{ for some } i \neq j$$

Obtain the test statistic and the corresponding non-centrality parameter.

4.7 Confidence intervals for estimable functions of β

Definition 2.

Suppose $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ is distributed independently of $W \sim \chi_v^2$, and then the distribution of

$$t = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{\frac{W}{v}}}$$

is called the student t-distribution with v degrees of freedom. We will use the notation

$$t \sim t_v$$

For the normal-theory Gauss-Markov model

$$\mathbf{Y} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\beta, \sigma^2 I),$$

the OLS estimator of an estimable function, $\mathbf{c}^T \beta$,

$$\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

follows a normal distribution, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} \sim N(\mathbf{c}^T \beta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{c}).$$

It follows that

$$Z = \frac{\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{c}^T \beta}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{c}}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

From Result 1.(ix), we have

$$\frac{1}{\sigma^2} SSE = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \mathbf{Y}^T (I - P_{\mathbf{X}}) \mathbf{Y} \sim \chi_{(n-k)}^2$$

where $k = \text{rank}(\mathbf{X})$.

Using the same argument that we used to derive Result 1.(x), we can show that $\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b}$ is distributed independently of $\frac{1}{\sigma^2} SSE$.

First note that

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} \\ (I - P_{\mathbf{X}}) \mathbf{Y} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \\ (I - P_{\mathbf{X}}) \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{Y}$$

has a joint normal distribution under the normal-theory Gauss-Markov model.

Note that

$$\begin{aligned}
 & Cov(\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b}, (I - P_{\mathbf{X}}) \mathbf{Y}) \\
 &= (\mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T) (V(\mathbf{Y})) (I - P_{\mathbf{X}})^T \\
 &= (\mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T) (\sigma^2) (I - P_{\mathbf{X}}) \\
 &= \sigma^2 \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{X}}) \\
 &= 0 \quad \quad \quad \uparrow \\
 & \quad \quad \quad \text{this is a matrix of zeros}
 \end{aligned}$$

Consequently,

$\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b}$ is distributed independently of

$$\mathbf{e} = (I - P_{\mathbf{X}}) \mathbf{Y}$$

which implies that

$\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b}$ is distributed independently of $SSE = \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e}$.

Then,

$$t = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{\frac{SSE}{\sigma^2(n-k)}}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{c}}} \\
 &= \frac{\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}}{\sqrt{\frac{SSE}{\sigma^2(n-k)}}} \\
 &= \frac{\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}}{\sqrt{\frac{SSE}{(n-k)} \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{c}}} \sim t_{(n-k)} \\
 & \quad \quad \quad \uparrow \\
 & \quad \quad \quad \frac{SSE}{n-k} \text{ is the MSE}
 \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 - \alpha &= Pr \left\{ -t_{(n-k), \alpha/2} \leq \frac{\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}}{\sqrt{MSE \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{c}}} \leq t_{(n-k), \alpha/2} \right\} \\
 &= Pr \left\{ \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} - t_{(n-k), \alpha/2} \sqrt{MSE \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{c}} \leq \mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} \right. \\
 & \quad \left. \leq \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} + t_{(n-k), \alpha/2} \sqrt{MSE \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{c}} \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

and a $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval for $\mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$ is

$$\left(\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} - t_{(n-k), \alpha/2} \sqrt{\text{MSE} \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{c}}, \right. \\ \left. \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} + t_{(n-k), \alpha/2} \sqrt{\text{MSE} \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{c}} \right)$$

For brevity we will also write

$$\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} \pm t_{(n-k), \alpha/2} S_{\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b}}$$

where

$$S_{\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b}} = \sqrt{\text{MSE} \mathbf{c}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{c}}.$$

For the normal-theory Gauss-Markov model with $\mathbf{Y} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 I)$, the interval

$$\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b} \pm t_{(n-k), \alpha/2} S_{\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{b}}$$

is the **shortest random interval** with probability $(1 - \alpha)$ of containing $\mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$.

4.8 Confidence interval for σ^2 :

For the normal-theory Gauss-Markov model with $\mathbf{Y} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 I)$ we have shown that

$$\frac{\text{SSE}}{\sigma^2} = \frac{\mathbf{Y}^T (I - P_{\mathbf{X}}) \mathbf{Y}}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{(n-k)}^2$$

Then,

$$1 - \alpha = \Pr \left\{ \chi_{(n-k), 1-\alpha/2}^2 \leq \frac{\text{SSE}}{\sigma^2} \leq \chi_{(n-k), \alpha/2}^2 \right\} \\ = \Pr \left\{ \frac{\text{SSE}}{\chi_{(n-k), \alpha/2}^2} \leq \sigma^2 \leq \frac{\text{SSE}}{\chi_{(n-k), 1-\alpha/2}^2} \right\}$$

The resulting $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval for σ^2 is

$$\left(\frac{\text{SSE}}{\chi_{(n-k), \alpha/2}^2}, \frac{\text{SSE}}{\chi_{(n-k), 1-\alpha/2}^2} \right)$$

Example 5.

For the simple regression model

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathbf{X}_{i1} + \epsilon_i,$$

where for $\mathbf{e} = (\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_i)^T$, $E(\mathbf{e}) = \mathbf{0}$. You are given

$$\begin{matrix} x & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ y & 4 & 7 & 6 & 8 \end{matrix}$$

Suppose that $V(\mathbf{e}) = \sigma^2 I$.

- (a) Construct the 95% confidence interval for β_1 .
- (b) Give 95% two-sided confidence interval for σ^2 in the normal version model.